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REVIEWS OF NEW BOOKS.

Precedency of H. R. H. Prince Albert, King-Consort de jure of Great Britain and Ireland.
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In these days of royal revels and ceremonies, of courtly festivals and etiquette, of proud enjoyments and bitter disappointments among the high and exalted, of dressings and anxieties, of displays and troubles, of smiles and tears, of hopes and fears, of vanities and envies, of kingly visits, princely christenings, splendours, and luxuries,—it is hardly worth while for a literary journal to write about any thing else. Yet though every newspaper is full of these matters, every quidnunc head puzzled by them, and every gossip tongue overflowing with them,—we shall be content with only a slight notice of the above modicum towards the general stir—a little charm thrown into the kettle to make the gruel more thick and slab.

The writer attaches a whimsically grave importance to the subject; and it would deserve consideration indeed if it were to decide, according to the title-page, whether Prince Albert were or were not the consort of Great Britain and Ireland? In this case, should Dan O'Connell succeed in the *repale* of the *Union*—(which with the singularly anomalous subscriptions from the *United States*, he seems likely to do)—would not H. R. H. be liable to be indicted for bigamy? Even as it is, it sounds very like having two wives—one British, and the other Irish; which, as Lover's song on the disputed date of St. Patrick's birth observes that

None can have two birth-days but a twins,
seems highly improper in the way of matrimonial connexion.

But notwithstanding all poetical authorities, from Shakspeare downwards, it does appear that there is much in a name. It may be all pretty enough to scribble

A rose by any other name would smell as sweet;
but the fact, as applied to humanity, is not so; and the flowery metaphor, though it may hold dew, will not hold water. Therefore it is that the writer fights this battle, not holding with another passage of the *Swan of Avon*, which led to a fierce remonstrance on the part of an old Charley when addressed extempore by a tipsy Thespian:

"I'll call thee father, Hamlet, royal Dane!" exclaimed the spouter. "You be d——, sir! call me what you please," retorted the incensed guardian of the night. Our author maintains that calling people what you please, rather than what they are entitled to, is a gross injury; and he argues, that being the beloved husband of our gracious queen, and the pa, already, not only of a princess royal but a prince of Wales, besides holding a glass in his hand made after the pattern of that shewn to Macbeth,—are insufficient for the constitutional feelings, dignities, privileges, immunities, and gratifications of that illustrious and most justly popular personage who is only styled prince. And he invokes her majesty to alter this; for "by the *Curialitas Anglie* the queen regnant is the paramount arbiter in all matters of civil dignity; and, on the ground that by the constitution of the realm when the regal office is administered by a

female, she is, by a fiction of law, held and accounted in all matters *quoad* the exercise of that office as a male, who can question her majesty's right to determine that her consort shall be regulated and accounted in all matters *quoad* his nuptial position by the same conventional understanding?"

By this passage we are led to the conclusion (and it seems only applicable in the Bull-way to the Irish marriage), that as the queen exercises her "office as a male," she ought forthwith to make her husband her *wife*, under the masculine cognomen of *king*! And to illustrate this position, it is added:—

"If the *wives* of all our degree of nobility—hereditary or personal—enjoy titles and precedence co-ordinate in dignity, name, and place, with those which are borne by their husbands respectively—and if the position of a queen regnant be wholly dissimilar from that of queen consort—then, as an abstract question of right, there can, we should suppose, be only one opinion in society with reference to the title and precedence of Prince Albert. His royal highness, by the holy offices of the Church, holds to the reigning sovereign a position in regard to social immunities precisely equivalent to that which her majesty Queen Adelaide held to our late revered monarch. It clearly follows, therefore, that he ought to have and enjoy in the present reign, state and place coincident with those which the Queen Dowager held and enjoyed in the last. The wife of a duke, marquess, or earl—degrees heretofore of princely dignity—or of viscount, baron, and baronet—which are each grades of lordly rank—is not more respectively a duchess, marchioness, countess, viscountess, baroness, or baroness, than is the consort of the queen regnant a titular king."

This clearly proves, that since wives take the titles of their husbands, Prince Albert, being, as already demonstrated, the wife of the female sovereign, who must, "by a fiction of law," be accounted a male, must in like (unlike) manner take the highest title which belongs to the crown. Q. E. D.

It is no matter, that when our commoners marry peeresses in their own right, they are simply plain *Masters* as before (and not a quarter so much masters in reality), whilst their ladies are be-graced or most-nobled. For though the said ladies may enjoy and use all the prerogatives of a superior sex, it is not constitutional to suffer the knowledge thereof to transpire to the world at large and scandalous public.

But far beyond political considerations, our author calls in to his aid the more stringent arguments furnished by religion and the solemnisation of the marriage-rite. "With my body I thee worship, and with all my worldly goods I thee endow," is the solemn vow at the altar, as he sagaciously remarks; and how then can this vow be fulfilled, "when the consort of the reigning sovereign being a male, standing politically in the same position to the throne, and no otherwise, than if he were a female, is not adjudged in all matters appertaining to his titles, precedence, and armorial ensigns, as king-consort?"!!!

There is also an indecorum in the existing state of things which utterly shocks our author. He is daily driven from his breakfast with horror, at reading in the *Morning Post*, for instance, that "the Queen and H. R. H. the Prince of Saxe Cobourg and Gotha walked out together on the slopes," or rode together, or sojourned in the same apartments. "There is something," he says, "altogether un-British" in this sort of philandering; and, in short, it is calculated to lower the parties "in the eyes of the nation and of Europe." Pretty decline these slopes are bringing us to! In the days of Queen Bess, who was at least as much of a Male and Masculine King as Queen Victoria, such improprieties would not have been tolerated. No slopes in those golden times, when it was well for the lovers of royalty that they could keep their heads on their shoulders.

"Had the great Elizabeth married (says our pamphleteer), would she not have followed the example of her sister, and called her husband king-consort? Assuredly she would. Indeed, it is only in times like the present, adverse to the ascendancy of the monarchical principle, that Queen Victoria's right to confer this distinction upon her spouse could ever have been questioned."

But all will soon be put to rights; for "The time has now arrived when her majesty, without any longer deferring to official influence in such matters, may evince herself the paramount arbiter in all questions of dignity. She may, by her own free, unfettered, royal act and will, recognise her husband's just claim to be called king-consort, and to be adjudged accordingly; she may aid the baronets in restoring their order to its lawful excellence; and she can, if she thinks proper, remodel the ancient knightly and esquirely degrees, and make them again worthy of an old, a mighty, and a splendid monarchy."

When all this is performed, as was eloquently sung by the author of *John Gilpin*,

"May we be there to see!"

The Child at Home. No. I. Talboys and Co.

THE first No. of a little monthly Magazine for little children. Few persons have sagacity enough to fulfil tasks of this kind as they ought to be performed, and we do not find one in a hundred writers or editors who address themselves to the infantile and juvenile classes in a manner which can be approved. The importance of the earliest precepts of instruction in forming the mind is acknowledged by all; and by too many the mode of imparting them is thought far too easy. They forget that the slightest deviations from purity, propriety, or strict truth, make as strong impressions as the laboured moral which they endeavour to inculcate. The aim is generally good; but the examples, illustrations, and incidental touches, are often erroneous, sowing the seeds of error. It is, indeed, a difficult thing to teach the young idea how to shoot, without deviating into false positions, and feathering the arrow with imperfect skill.

The threepenny-worth before us is not free from such mistakes. Thus, in the opening paper

on Christmas, it is hailed as a festive time; and, among other joyful images connected with it, its children-readers are told of the many boys coming home for the holidays, who "exchange many pence for many pea-shooters and many peas, to fire at the people as they pass," without a hint that such amusement is a sorry and sometimes dangerous one. And, in like manner, little girls tell their mamas of their "keeping awake at church, while governess fell asleep," and are not warned that boasting of a duty and bandying scandals are about two of the worst faults, short of lying or thieving, of which very young ladies can be guilty. After this we have much religious inculcation, which, we fear, would be thrown away on boisterous pea-shooters and prating minxes. Perhaps we have treated this subject, at least as brought under consideration in so humble a shape, with too much gravity; but it is in every shape one of the most essential to the well-being of the individual and of society which can be mooted for consideration. The next paper is a neat account of the elephant, a lesson in natural history; and is followed by a letter from Lisbon, more objectionable than the Christmas-day remarks. It describes, *inter alia*, the miracle of St. Anthony and his Crows, not fit for childish education; and it abuses grammar by using *lay for lie*, a vulgarism of annoying occurrence in ignorant writings. The history of Abraham, adapted for infancy, is also disfigured by mistaken views: *ex. gr.* "it was not known in those days that to have more wives than one was contrary to the will of God," which is an explanation at war with what was not only permitted, but ordained in the early population of the earth, and under different laws from those which govern us. We will say nothing more at present, but express a hope that should *The Child at Home* proceed, our suggestions will lead to greater care in its construction, and that they will not be thrown away on the very numerous authors who come before the public as the instructors of youth. The teaching of Evil where Good is meant, is fraught with danger and misery beyond what a hasty glance or casual calculation can imagine; and yet it sadly predominates in the productions of this kind.

Remarks on Church Architecture: with Illustrations. By the Rev. J. L. Petit, M.A. 2 vols. 8vo. London, James Burns.

It is long since we have met with a publication on a subject of this kind which has pleased us so much as Mr. Petit's volumes. We sometimes hear the word "charming" applied to productions of other kinds, well-wrought fictions, interesting poetry, eloquence, biography, and even history; but we do not remember an occasion when it could with so much propriety be awarded to such a theme as *Remarks on Church Architecture*—a branch of the fine arts. When, however, the broad foundations of classical knowledge, the taste of the enlightened amateur, the feelings of the Christian worshipper, and the experience of a widely studied survey, are combined in one person, and his ideas are communicated in the plain, unaffected tone of a polished gentleman, there is a result rarely met with, like what is now before us, that inspires a very superior degree of delight to the senses and understanding. Having offered the tribute of applause so justly due to the author for the manner in which he has performed his task, we shall say a few words on the subject to which he has so ably and gracefully called our attention.

Doubting, as we do, the possibility of reviving

a style of architecture which sprung from causes long since passed away, and which, moreover, derived much of its value from the utter disregard of expense,—we nevertheless hail with pleasure every attempt at investigating the principles of design upon which it is founded. The spirit infused into the Gothic buildings from almost the earliest Byzantine or Romanesque examples down to the most florid specimens of the fifteenth century, seems the result of a deep-rooted religious devotion, which attaches to the Catholic more than to the Protestant form of worship. We confess ourselves, therefore, with small hope that Mr. Petit's very gratifying work will be of much avail in resuscitating the style, which there is every reason to admire so much. It is divided, after its introductory chapter, into heads as follow:—Classification of the Styles—Roman and Italian Architecture—Early Romanesque—Late Romanesque, or Norman—Transition Style—Early complete Gothic—Late complete Gothic. These compose the subjects of the first volume. The second volume furnishes a concise view of the mechanical principles of buildings of the Middle Ages—a chapter on Composition, Proportion, and Arrangement—one on Form, Proportion, and Arrangement—On Modern Repairs and Adaptations. The two last chapters, which are incomplete, but valuable as far as they go, are on continental specimens recommended for the survey of the student.

Mr. Petit has thought an apology necessary for the roughness of his sketches—we think none was required. Many of them are extremely clever and spirited, and almost all preserve the character of the buildings represented. The examples are well selected, and amount to a very large number, forming a precious addition to the stock of already published churches. We cannot help, among them, being struck with the superior magnificence of most of the continental examples.

We confess we are not quite satisfied with Mr. Petit's adoption of Mr. Whewell's new technical terms for the parts of Gothic buildings, being averse to new nomenclatures without very cogent reasons.

The first chapter of the second volume will be found very useful to the amateur, as containing an intelligible account of the mechanical principles of the buildings of the early ages, and particularly of the mode in which the pendentives of a dome arise from its section by vertical planes.

The work should have had an index, by which its value will be enhanced when it comes to another edition, whereof we have no hesitation to affirm it well deserves, and have no doubt it will very quickly attain.

Before proceeding to afford our readers a few examples of the Illustrations to which we have alluded as being executed in so artist-like a manner, but which are infinitely more valuable in consequence of their aiding the descriptive explanations of the text, so as to leave nothing doubtful or misunderstood, we have to select a few passages from the letter-press itself, enow to shew how fitly the literature and the arts are conjoined in these volumes.

No question connected with the existing condition of our own church architecture is of more importance than that which is implied in its repairs and adaptations—or, in churchwarden phraseology, its repairs and beautification. In his chapter hereon, Mr. Petit writes:

"The following lines have been kindly placed in my hands; and I feel that I need not apologise to the reader for their introduction. Nor will he peruse them with less pleasure, when

he is assured that the fears expressed by the writer in behalf of the interesting relic in question have been proved groundless by the care and judgment of its restorers: few churches have been so fortunate.

On the projected repairs of Barfreston Church. April 1840.

"Delay the ruthless work awhile—O spare,
Thou stern, unyielding demon of repair,
This precious relic of an early age!
More fatal is thy touch than the fell rage
Of warring elements. Yon ancient wall—
Better to see it tottering to its fall,
Than deck'd in new attire with lavish cost,
Form, dignity, proportion, grace, all lost!
How many a sacred pile in this fair land,
Touch'd and retouch'd by some unholy hand,
A modern motley garb incongruous wears,
Veiling the venerable form of years!"

The chancel-arch—must it then sink at last
Beneath the weight borne for long ages past?
The graceful curve is broken, bent the wall,
And the rich moulding crumbles—must it fall?
Round and above the altar once were trac'd
Paintings, of rude design perchance, yet grac'd
With brilliant colours; o'er them time has spread
A dim, mysterious curtain. Overhead,
Above the narrow eastern lights, was hung
A wheel of cunning workmanship; and 'mong
The mouldings, quaint devices yet may show
The sculptor's art; but the crush'd circle now
Hath lost its rounded form—yes, all must soon lie low.

It were a pious work, I hear you say,
To prop the falling ruin, and to stay
The work of desolation. It may be
That ye say right; but, O, work tenderly;
Beware lest one worn feature ye efface—
Seek not to add one touch of modern grace;
Handle with reverence each crumbling stone,
Respect the very lichens o'er it grown,
And bid each ancient monument to stand,
Supported e'en as with a filial hand.

Mid all the light a happier day has brought,
Why work we not as our forefathers wrought?
Years should have ripen'd the imperfect pow'rs
Of art, and ev'ry grace should now be ours;
Yet do the structures of our fathers' age
Shame the weak efforts of art's latest stage—
Say, whence the skill which darker times possess?
In those rude days men gave to God their best."

"The architects of the later styles found it necessary both to rebuild, to repair, and to enlarge; and they almost always did this in the prevalent manner of the day; consequently a great number of our churches are a mixture of every kind of Gothic, and yet appear perfectly consistent,—as if their successive builders had been actuated by the same spirit, while they adopted different styles. Take almost any of our cathedrals as an example: Ely, perhaps, is the most striking. The nave and transepts are Norman. The western tower belongs to a very early stage of transition; its upper part being decorated, or perhaps flamboyant. The western porch and east end of the choir are of a finished early English; the octagon, and a few compartments near it, in the place of those destroyed by the fall of the old central tower, are rich decorated. Several insertions of windows and chapels are florid perpendicular. Each of these styles is boldly and strongly marked; none is either disguised or made to imitate its predecessor; the adaptation is merely sufficient to preserve a due regularity in the leading lines of the edifice; and yet the whole is in admirable keeping: a better effect could scarcely have been obtained by the most perfect uniformity. York Minster ranges from early English to advanced perpendicular. The transepts admit only the lancet-arch; the front of the northern one, with its row of windows, called the five sisters, is among the finest specimens of the style. The complete Gothic, with geometrical tracery, occurs in the chapter-house, as well as other parts of the building. The flowing decorated, in its best form, pervades the west front, verging, however, towards perpendicular in the upper part of the towers; the choir is early perpendicular; and the central tower somewhat later. Yet there is no abrupt-

ness,—all might have been the work of one hand. At Gloucester the massive Norman members of the choir are overlaid with a network of the finest florid Gothic, and crowned by a lofty clerestory of the same. The tower, certainly the richest in England, is supported by transepts which hardly attempt to disguise their Norman features. The long Norman nave of Winchester is transformed into perpendicular, the tower and transepts remaining unaltered. Many of our country churches are actually heaps of chapels built at different periods; and such are generally the most striking and picturesque. And we even see the gables of fronts changed over and over again, to suit different successive repairs, and yet betraying in no one of their stages a want of due proportion: therefore he who is really acquainted with the principles of the art may repair, enlarge, and beautify, without fear. But alas for the building which falls into the hands of an ignorant or presumptuous restorer! I do not speak under the influence of any strong antiquarian feeling; I do not look upon the preservation of a quaint figure, or a curious moulding, as a matter of higher importance than the admission of hundreds of my fellow-Christians within the walls of their church: but it is truly grievous to see the proportions of a beautiful edifice needlessly defaced, or the character stamped upon it by artists, who worked upon rules nearly as unerring as those of instinct, swept away by persons who know such rules only as are dictated by their own caprice and fancy, or at best suggested by a very limited course of observation. How many a noble church, that for ages has preserved its beauty in spite of accident, violence, or decay, seems to writhe and struggle under the fantastic additions and incongruous ornaments of some architect who fancies he can supply what its original designer has omitted, or correct what he has planned! The buildings bequeathed to us by the piety of our ancestors are not, indeed, objects of religious veneration, but undoubtedly they claim a deep respect; and this respect is, I verily believe, still paid them by the great mass of our countrymen, even including many whose persuasions debar them the use of these edifices as places of worship. But the same regard which prompts us to rescue them from decay, ought also to warn us against meddling with them rashly in the way of alteration and fancied improvement. That they admit of none, is what nobody would assert; but are we, in the present state of the art, competent to judge of either their defects or their capabilities? Far better were the incongruous additions of the last century, the Grecian porticos and Italian balustrades, which, after all, seldom destroyed the proportions of the building, than those insidious deformities, which, assuming the lineaments of true art, belie in the eyes of the world its very spirit and character.

In restoration and renewal there cannot be a better rule than to follow the old work accurately. This, in many of our cathedrals, has been exceedingly well done; and with the numerous models we can always command, there will seldom be found much difficulty in replacing broken details. The adaptation, however, of pinnacles is generally a most dangerous experiment. * * * Whoever has studied the plans of the first Christian churches, as given by writers on ecclesiastical antiquities, will not fail to perceive that they differ materially, in many parts of their arrangement, from those of the middle ages which remain to us; and these latter, again, from such as would be most suitable to our present manner of conducting pub-

lic worship. Neither of the first two descriptions seems to contemplate the performance of a general service in the face of a congregation large enough to fill the whole building. In both cases the area was divided into compartments, to a certain degree independent of each other; and this is often a source of inconvenience to ourselves. Yet the old models may often be adapted, either in the way of copy or alteration, to our own use, and, if properly treated, are as good as any we could devise. When a church has aisles, they generally extend merely the length of the nave, the chancel being without any, and separated from the rest by an arch; consequently the altar is not seen by the greatest part of those who occupy the aisles. Now, let the plan be reversed. Let the chancel be provided with aisles, and the nave be without any; the altar is at once placed in sight of the whole congregation, wherever they may be disposed. * * * We are now furnished with a suggestion where and how the architect should begin upon the enlargement of an old church. That such must often of necessity be enlarged, no one can deny; that they are uniformly spoiled by the operation, is, I fear, equally true. Take one of the commonest village churches we can meet with; a moderately sized western tower, a plain nave without aisles, and a chancel of smaller dimensions,—both having a high-pitched roof. This is usually enlarged by expanding the nave in either or both directions, or adding an aisle to it,—in short, some alteration is always made which utterly destroys the proportion of the tower. Let us begin at the other end. Instead of meddling with the nave, let us take down the chancel, and substitute one as much higher and wider than the nave, as the nave exceeds the old chancel, taking care to preserve the original proportions and form both of the gable and end-window. The chancel may be made of what length we please; and if its excess in width be not sufficient abutment for an arch the full breadth of the nave, an outer buttress may be added. Now this alteration, so far from impairing, actually improves the outline of the church, which becomes more varied. The tower, standing against the unaltered building to which it originally belonged, does not lose any of its importance; while the difference in height between the nave and the chancel, which now becomes in favour of the latter, breaks the length of the edifice in a pleasing manner. A reverse pyramidal outline, where the central point is the lowest, is just as favourable to beauty as the direct one, having its central point highest. As churches frequently occur whose chancel-roof is higher than that of the nave, it is easy to judge of the effect of this new arrangement; and the room for the congregation may be nearly doubled by it, every individual being placed within sight of the altar. If more room be still required, one or two similar chancels might be added as aisles, either terminating with gables, or sloping off at an angle; and in neither case will the beauty of the composition be found to suffer. Thus we obtain a rule for enlarging a church of the most common form, to almost any extent, without really injuring its proportions or character. * * * We cannot too strongly condemn the practice of placing the pulpit in front of the altar, so as to make the former, instead of the latter, the principal object in the church. Even the position which some continental Protestants give it, behind the altar, would be better. This, however, or any other useless change in the arrangement of our churches, is to be deprecated. The pulpit may always be made to stand

against a side-wall, or one of the pillars, or under the spring of the chancel-arch; and this position will probably be found the most advantageous as regards the voice."

Let the commissioners for building new churches, and the architects they employ, deeply ponder on these suggestions, as well as on every part of Mr. Petit's work; and the scenery of England, as well as its devotion, will have much to thank them for. The picturesque and the pious go hand in hand here; and generations yet unborn would taste the earthly enjoyment, as a step to the purer benefit of the heavenly aspiration.

We are almost sorry to see that Mr. Petit dislikes the perfectly antiquarian restoration of the ceiling of the Temple Church, as too gaudy for Protestant worship; but we will not moot the point; and conclude our extracts, at least for this week (not being sure that we can, by quotation and engravings, sufficiently embrace and exemplify the work in one *Gazette*), by giving the close of the chapter from which we have already taken our text.

"It were desirable that every clergyman who feels an interest in matters relating to taste and art (and what person of liberal education does not?) should turn his mind to the subject of church-architecture. In some cases, both his local knowledge and his feelings might enable him to perform the part of architect to greater advantage than even those of more experience, and better acquainted with technicalities; in others he may prove an able and useful assistant. At all events, a general extension of this study will give its proper force both to criticism, advice, and encouragement. Who will treat a censure, however well-grounded in itself, otherwise than with ridicule, when every word in which it is couched tends only to prove the utter ignorance of the objector? Or who will value approbation, except as a mere step to profit, from one who shews that he has no perception of real merit? That such an extension of knowledge upon the subject, whether among clergy or laity, would be most advantageous in every respect to professional architects, needs no argument to shew; that it is earnestly wished for by themselves, their own publications abundantly prove, of which it is sufficient to name Mr. Rickman's invaluable treatise, which reduced our English Gothic to an intelligible and harmonious system. We have no reason to suppose that a spirit may not be easily awakened that shall lead to the highest excellence. But, above all, let the architect himself be prepared to sacrifice much. Let him not grudge his time and labour to a task of which he cannot hope to reap the honour and profit; let him be content to lay the foundations of an edifice which a future generation shall see completed; to toil for the recovery of hidden principles and lost harmonies, which the master-spirit of a succeeding age may awaken into life and perfection,—or else let him not seek to be entrusted with the humblest edifice dedicated to the service of the Almighty. To this self-devotion we owe the monuments of ancient piety; their builders were not led by ambition,—they sought not, and received not, the rewards of personal fame. Few of their names are known, while their works are the admiration of posterity."

The examples we have been able to transfer to our page are: 1, a rude chapel in the Black Forest; 2, Hougoumont, of deep historical interest; 3, a church on the Lake of Thun, picturesque as the surrounding scenery, and admirable for a village church; 4, St. Honorat, at Arles, ancient, and seeming in part copied from the ruined Roman amphitheatre; 5 and 6, near Nantes, and at Oppenheim, curious but pleasing mixtures of various styles—Norman, Gothic, Romanesque, &c.



1.



2.



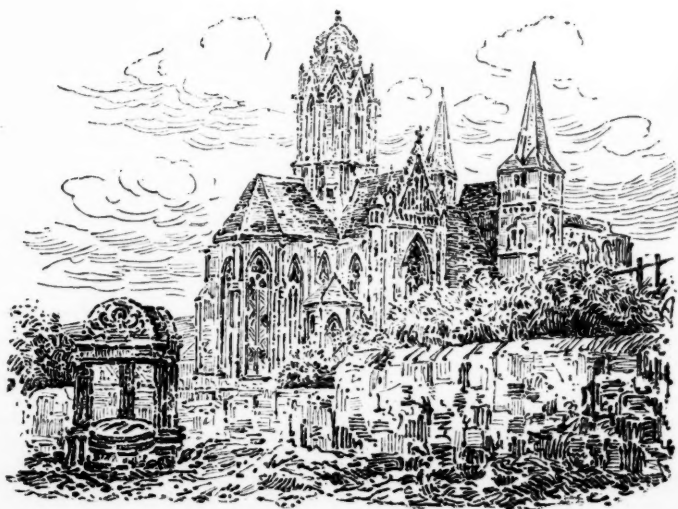
3.



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5.



6.

Notes of a Traveller on the Social and Political State of France, Prussia, Switzerland, Italy, and other Parts of Europe, during the present Century. By S. Laing, Esq., author of a "Residence in Norway," and "Tour in Sweden." 8vo, pp. 496. Longman and Co.

SOME books there are which require a deuced deal of reading. Their opinions are so multifarious, opposite, and dogged, and their whole materials so stubborn, that it is a long while before we can twist our minds round their rugged forms, and resolve them into facile intelligences. The present volume is precisely a nut of this sort, or rather a cluster of nuts, and not easily cracked. We have delved away at them with great diligence, but, we fear, with little advantage which we can communicate to others. On the contrary, we are disposed to question and contradict so many of the author's hypotheses and views, that we feel the result of a sifting must be a controversy, for which we have neither inclination nor room. Nor would argument with Mr. Laing be of a pleasant kind; for he assumes to himself the prerogative of being decidedly right, the master of truth and just principle,—knocking off prejudices to the right and left, and smashing the false lustre of all who differ from him. Such arrogance is arrogantly punished; and "when I speak, let no dog bark," might have been the epigraph to these pages. They are, indeed, the essence of dogmatism.

Yet the author is a man of great ability and observation; and produces heavy work both in the way of statement and reasoning for those who may coincide with, and those who may differ from, him. Prepossessed with one grand and leading idea, he bends every thing into subservience to it; and in his zeal for its universal establishment and application, he seems to us to contradict himself nearly as often as he contradicts the rest of the world. His be-all and end-all may be comprised in a few words: *There is nothing good or desirable in life except a ceaseless labour at productiveness, and of productions which in their turn can be made the source of greater productiveness!!!* All else is waste and folly. Toil, produce; run ahead, produce; make product productive without end or limit, and mankind will be happy. It would be a long time, we daresay, before the effect of overproductiveness could injure the human race; but if this canon be true, that period must be contemplated. What Mr. Laing would do then, it is needless for us to inquire, and neither of us will live to see it; but when a principle is enounced, we must look to it as far as it could be carried; and if we do so here, we perceive that unless our author could command indefinite space and eternity, we had better go on in the middle way which Providence has hitherto permitted, and men of various natures and in various circumstances have pursued. We may thus continue to relish the sports of the field, literature, works of art, the cultivation of mind, the investigation of moral and religious truths—in short, all merely satisfactory physical objects,* elegant accomplishments and enjoyments, and exalting speculations; portions of this earth's inhabitants employing themselves in such ways, whilst others dig, or spin, or drudge, according to their conditions, but still cheered by a prospect that by their industry and virtue they may raise themselves into the superior ranks, who have so much of the primal curse removed from them.

The countries which Mr. Laing has visited

are so many pegs whereon to hang his notions on education, commerce, corn-laws, pauperism, Christianity, social and political economy, government, *et quædam alia*. The account of the German commercial league is perhaps, upon the whole, the essay most worthy of the attention of the English reader: but we can only refer to it. The few following are rather striking remarks on several subjects; and we quote them as samples of the author's powers of observation and ratiocination. He is treating of the Prussian government, and especially of its military force, and says:—

"The time, labour, industry, and money which should have been accumulating during peace in the hands of the people, and forming a capital diffused over the country capable of bearing the expenses of a war, are expended every year in military shows, drills, and manœuvres, which, even admitting that they make perfect soldiers of the whole population, leave nothing to move them with in the event of real war—nothing to raise taxes from. In the whole Prussian population the number of males fit for productive labour, that is, between their seventeenth and forty-fifth year inclusive, appears to be about three millions. It is 3,042,946, including the infirm, sick, blind, lame, deformed, and all fit or unfit for military duty and productive labour. Above one sixth of this gross number of productive labourers is taken by the state every year, for longer or shorter periods, from productive labour, to be employed in the unproductive labour of handling their firelocks, marching, and manœuvring. A people whose time and labour are thus taken away from industrial occupation, can never become rich or powerful as a nation, nor well off as individuals. The Duke of Wellington was right in an observation which has often been cavilled at, that notwithstanding our heavy taxation, the English labouring people are the least heavily taxed of any labouring people in Europe. The time and labour of the common man, with us, are not taken from him by his government."

But Mr. Laing, by a strange string of theoretical induction, attempts in another place to prove, that a tenth of the agricultural labourer's work is taken from him by tithes; and that nobody else, neither landlord nor tenant, contributes to them. Such a one-sided mystification it has seldom been our lot to try to unravel and understand.

On the corn-law question, Mr. Laing, however, beats himself by taking both sides; first, by shewing the absolute necessity for their continuance; and, secondly, by demonstrating the absolute necessity of their abolition.

"In a question so important, delusion should be carefully removed. It is delusion to believe with M. Jacob, Dr. Bowring, and other great statistical authorities—however consolatory and comforting the belief may be to the country acquires and lords on the parliamentary committees on the corn-laws—that wheat cannot be shipped at Dantzig under 45s., or 35s., or any other price. The delusion arises from applying ideas drawn from our English state of society and agriculture to a social and agricultural economy altogether different. It is only in Britain and a few densely inhabited manufacturing districts on the Continent that tenants of capital paying money-rents can be said to exist. They are the exception, not the rule, among the husbandry class of Europe. They can only exist where there is a coexistent class of consumers within reach for every kind of agricultural produce where there is no capital to buy, it is but forced and unnatural work to produce; and where only one kind of agricul-

tural produce—corn—can find a market, and all the succession-crops, owing to the small demand in proportion to the supply of meat, butter, cheese, and such secondary farm-produce, give no remunerating prices, regular farming on our system cannot exist. Where winter also interrupts all out-door farm-work—not, as with us, only for a few days occasionally, and rarely for several weeks, but for many successive months of frost and snow—all farming speculations on the great scale, with hired servants on wages, and improved systems of husbandry, are delusive, and are only successful in a very few localities. Farming on the Continent cannot generally be carried on upon the Scotch or English system, in which man and horse every day of the year are reproductively employed in farm-work. The Metayer system is the only mode of letting land that is practicable, generally speaking, in the corn-growing countries which supply the British markets. In this Metayer system the landlord provides the land, houses, utensils, and seed: the tenant finds the labour; and the crops are divided between the two parties, after deducting the seed, horse-corn, and bread, until the next crop, in proportions according to their respective furnishings towards the production, or according to usage or agreement. From not considering this agricultural arrangement, which is almost universal on the Continent, M. Jacob and other writers on the corn-laws have fallen into the delusion that wheat and other grain cannot be shipped from the Continent permanently, or for a series of years, under certain prices; and have given themselves infinite trouble to collect the opinions of consuls and corn-dealers at the different shipping-ports on the minimum prices at which grain could be shipped in their localities.

It is a delusion also, before touched upon, arising from the application of ideas drawn from our English social economy to the continental social economy, to argue, as many do, and from very correct principles in the abstract of political economy, that the more we take of foreign time and labour involved in their commodity—corn—the more foreigners will take of our time and labour involved in our commodity—manufactured goods. On the Continent every family, even in towns not inconsiderable, manufactures for itself,—buys little or nothing compared to families of the same class in England. The Metayer family has its own raw material of clothing, viz. flax, hemp, wool, hides, raised by itself; has house-room and time—idle time in winter—to work them up, not indeed into very fine, but into very wearable stuff, by their own and their domestics' work; and no amount of capital thrown into their hands as the price of their corn could change those habits of a population which are almost produced by, or at least very closely connected with, their climate, husbandry, mode of existence, and whole social economy. The whole agricultural population, if not manufacturing in some way,—spinning, weaving, making household goods, working in iron, wood, or cloth, for their own use, during the winter months,—would be totally idle all the winter half year. It is a saving of time with us to buy all, and make nothing at home. It would be a waste of time on the Continent not to make at home all that can be made. It has been pointed out already as the main impediment to the success of the German commercial league, that, owing to this circumstance in the social economy of Germany, the home-market, on which alone any great industrial prosperity can be founded, is, and always will

* Including cooking, of which we are told—but what, our readers shall know in our next.

be, inconsiderable, and insufficient to keep alive any great development of manufacturing industry. The superior importance of the home-market for all that the manufacturing industry of Great Britain produces, compared to what the foreign market, including even the colonial, takes off, furnishes one of the strongest arguments against the abolition of the corn-laws. It is an argument drawn from the quiver of the moneyed interest itself. If the home-market, which depends upon the consumpt of the many, be injured by a deficiency of the means among the many to buy and consume, and a reduction of the wages of labour by a reduction of the cost of subsistence is clearly a reduction of the means to expend in the home-market, it is killing the goose that laid the golden eggs to reduce the wages of labour for the sake of the foreign market for our manufactures. Political economists tell us that the export of our industrial products, including even the consumpt of our colonies, is by no means of that magnitude that any real interests of our labouring class should be sacrificed for the foreign market; and that it is not the basis of our manufacturing prosperity. The home consumpt, not the foreign, is undeniably that which the great mass of British manufacturing labour and capital is engaged in supplying. Take away from the home-consumers the means to consume—that is, the high and artificial value of their labour, or rate of wages, produced by the working of the corn-laws—and you stop this home-market. You cut off the spring from which it is fed. You sacrifice a certain home-market for an uncertain foreign market. You sacrifice four-fifths for the chance of augmenting one-fifth. If the one-fifth, the foreign consumpt, could be augmented so as to equal the four-fifths, the home-consumpt, it would still be a question of very doubtful policy whether it should be so augmented; whether the means of living of so large a proportion of the productive classes should be made to depend so entirely upon a demand which political circumstances might suddenly cut off.

We thought Mr. L. had almost settled the corn-law question by these and other arguments; but he comes to the very opposite conclusion, and is all in favour of extending manufactures at the expense, and by the sacrifice, of agriculture: though, in speaking of Genoa, he thus describes the consequences:

"May not the history of Genoa's commercial greatness and decline become, in the course of ages, that of England's? May not the one shew in small, what the other will come to in large? Is not the same element of decay common to the social economy of both? It is in the nature of trade and manufacture, that great capital drives small capital out of the field; it can afford to work for smaller returns. There is a natural tendency in trade to monopoly, by the accumulation of great wealth in few hands. It is not impossible, that in every branch of trade and manufacture in Britain, the great capitalist will in time entirely occupy the field, and put down small capitalists in the same lines of business; that a monied aristocracy, similar to that here in Genoa, will gradually be formed, the middle class of small capitalists in trade and manufacture become gradually extinguished, and a structure of society gradually arise, in which lords and labourers will be the only classes or gradations in the commercial and manufacturing, as in the landed system. An approximation, a tendency towards this state, is going on in England. In many branches of industry,—for instance, in glass-making, iron-

founding, soap-making, cotton-spinning, the great capitalists engaged in them have, by the natural effect of working with great capital, driven small capitals out of the field, and formed a kind of exclusive family property of some of these branches of manufacture. Government, by excessive taxation and excise-regulation,—both of which have ultimately the effect, as in the glass and soap manufacture and distillery business, of giving a monopoly to the great capitalist, who can afford the delay and advance of money these impediments require,—has been hitherto aiding, rather than counteracting, this tendency of great capital to swallow all the employments in which small capital can act. It is a question practically undetermined, whether the experiment into which this tendency has forced society within these few years, the junction of small capitalists in joint-stock, subscription, or share companies, can compete in productive industry, with great capital in the hands of one or two partners wielding great means with the energy, activity, and frugality of an individual. It is not an imaginary, nor perhaps a very distant evil, that our middle classes with their small capitals may sink into nothing, may become, as here, tradesmen or small dealers supplying a few great manufacturing and commercial families with the articles of their household consumpt, or supernumerary candidates for unnecessary public functions, civil, military, or clerical; and that in trade, as in land, a noblesse of capitalists, and a population of serfs working for them, may come to be the two main constituent parts in our social structure. A Genoa in large, England may possibly become—with one small class living in almost royal splendour and luxury: and the great mass of the community in rags and hunger."

Our author is exceeding wrath with the Rhine, because it is not like the Mississippi; and thinks that idlers relaxing from severe studies or toils, and seeking health by excursions on the former, are wasteful nuisances and excrescences on the great plan of *utilitarianising* every thing and movement; whilst the steamboats, snags, push-along, trafficking, gambling, speculating, peculating, and dashing of the latter, are truly, (not) according to the catechism, the chief end of man. But indeed the catechism and creeds have small charms for one possessed by a utility-productive mania. Of Switzerland he remarks,—

"It is surprising, and suggestive of very important reflections, how an enlightened self-interest, keenly appreciating its own private advantage in the public good, keeps a people honest, sober, industrious, highly patriotic, and in the active and regular discharge of all private and public duties as men and citizens, without the higher influences of religion. But so it is. The Swiss people present to the political philosopher the unexpected and most remarkable social phenomenon of a people eminently moral in conduct, yet eminently irreligious; at the head of the moral state in Europe, not merely for absence of numerous or great crimes, or of disregard of right, but for ready obedience to law, for honesty, fidelity to their engagements, for fair dealing, sobriety, industry, orderly conduct, for good government, useful public institutions, general well-being, and comfort—yet at the bottom of the scale for religious feelings, observances, or knowledge, especially in the Protestant cantons, in which prosperity, well-being, and morality seem to be, as compared to the Catholic cantons, in an inverse ratio to the influence of religion on the people. How is this discordance between their religious and their

moral and material state to be reconciled? It is so obvious, that every traveller in Switzerland is struck with the great contrast in the well-being and material condition of the Protestant and Catholic populations, and equally so with the difference in the influence of religion over each. This influence is at its minimum in Protestant, and at its maximum nearly in Catholic Switzerland; and the prosperity and social well-being of the people are exactly the reverse. How is this? Is it that the Swiss people, at home and abroad, see the utility of moral conduct, the utility of temperance, fidelity, self-restraint, honesty, obedience to law, patriotism, and defence of their country, and of their independent political establishments—see the advantages, the pay, in short, of moral conduct and patriotism, in every shape and way, and are therefore eminently moral and patriotic, yet not from religious principles or influences, but altogether from an enlightened self-interest?"

Ehien, jam satis! of Mr. Samuel Laing and the school in which he is a prominent figure; but that we must give his contrast to the virtuous and highly moral selfishness of Switzers, serving any where and every where, in any cause, *for pay*—charging travellers in their country more exorbitantly than any other people in Europe—and, in short, being desperate hands at productiveness for their own benefit,—with the miserable nations who entertain religion, a church, and a clergy:

"In Naples there are 4632 secular clergy. If to these we add the monastic clergy of 1960 monks, and the nuns who are 717 in number, we have in all 7809 persons withdrawn from the pursuits of industry, and earning social influence and all that men strive to obtain by industry, in other employments than the useful arts. We see here, in its extreme, the working of a forced church-extension, of a numerous establishment of clergy in a community. The effects will be proportionably the same whatsoever be the religion; the same proportionably in Presbyterian Glasgow as in Catholic Naples, if the clerical body were increased upon the principle of what governments and clergy may think requisite for a people, instead of upon the principle that the people themselves will provide for their own religious instruction according to their wants, and recipient capability of using it. Carry the clerical establishment of Glasgow to 4573 persons, which would be in proportion to that of Naples—if that number would satisfy our admirers of church-extension—abstract this number from the pursuits of productive industry—and Glasgow would be another Naples. This Naples is the St. Giles's of Europe."

De Montfort; or, the Old English Nobleman.
3 vols. London, Bentley.

"This novel was commenced several years ago, when the author was very young, and had little literary experience. Yet it was so fortunate as to be favourably received by the present publisher, even in an unfinished state. On continuing it, the author felt dissatisfied with the subject; but the fact of its having been accepted, in some degree imposed upon him the necessity of completing it. After a considerable interval it was printed; but the author's absence from England prevented his having an opportunity of revising the whole of it. These circumstances form the ground of the apology which he begs to offer for a work disfigured both by inaccuracies and excrescences; mongrel in kind, meagre in design, yet so heterogeneous as regards its contents, that it literally com-

prises a sample of every thing—from 'marbles to manslaughter.'"

So far we allow the author to be his own reviewer, giving his own opinion of his own work, or rather relating the circumstances under which it has been compiled and written, and apologising for its heterogeneity. From "marbles (the slang is pitch and toss) to manslaughter" is a wide expanse, and comprises more than are within the ken of any one man: we do not, therefore, find one half the things with which ourselves are conversant within the above extremes, and yet there are sufficient and various enough fully to entitle the work to the character "heterogeneous." The first volume seems to have been designed, and carried out so far, to commit romance; that is, the author appears to have intended to draw on his imagination for the facts. But, in the second, the tale original gives place to agreeably selected or slightly altered records of the celebrated personages of the early part of the reign of George the Third; Henry Fox, Mrs. Montague, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Garrick, Foote, Horace Walpole, Dr. Johnson, Burke, Sterne, Gray the poet, and many others. This portion has no claim to originality, but displays merely extensive light reading, and an acquaintance with the minor points of history. The third volume almost leads to the belief that "marbles and manslaughter" meant more weighty matter than figure and fancy, when quoted and used by the author in his preface. For although, like the undiscovered bullet from Oxford's pistol, we cannot find the "marbles," manslaughter is almost perpetrated. And immediately the hero and readers are hurried abroad; and Frederick the Great, Princess Amelia, Baron Trenck, and Count St. Germain, are mixed up with travels and trials, passage to Dunkirk, excursion to Rheinsberg, Vienna, crossing the Pyrenees, &c.: these are taken at random from the chapter-headings. Thus, it will be seen, the three volumes comprise romance, history, and travels, and are amusing enough; which we conceive is as much as can be expected from a work of the self-styled "heterogeneous" class.

The following will afford examples of the author's often-varied pages:—

"There is a curious story of Frederick's first acquaintance with his secretary, Le Katt. When prince royal, the king had travelled through Holland, attended by Colonel Balby; both disguised as musicians. A portion of this journey was performed in a passage-box. The king, who was in a private cabin, began to wish for more company; he therefore sent Balby into the public cabin, desiring him to see if there was any one worth becoming acquainted with. Balby returned with Le Katt, whom he had found a very intelligent young man. The king invited him to join them in an attack upon an eel-pie. Almost all princes, like children, ask an infinity of questions. Their conversation, indeed, chiefly consists of them; and for the same reason—that, beyond a limited sphere, every thing is new or unknown to them. Frederick, who always thirsted for information, questioned the stranger very rapidly. At length the young man, astonished at his inquisitiveness, said, 'Permit me, sir, to observe, that you have asked me an unreasonable number of questions in return for a single cut of pie.'"

Though not very novel, the remarks on the gipsies are interesting:—

"I always felt a keen interest and much inquisitiveness respecting this singular people, who have lived many centuries among almost

all the European nations, engaging from time to time the attention and speculations of the learned, who have yet been unable to penetrate the mystery that hides their origin. Nor do they know any thing of themselves, how, when, why, or whence they came; for they have no history, no records, no traditions. In each of the countries inhabited by their tribes, they assimilate in some degree to the natives, and speak their language; but not to the exclusion of their own tongue, which they preserve and transmit, though they have neither teachers, scholars, books, nor letters. Without any peculiar customs or rites,—for they have no religion, consequently neither altars, priests, images, gods, nor idols,—they have preserved their distinctness; surviving the many edicts tending to their extinction, the continual persecution to which they have every where been exposed, they can still boast independence. Many attempts have been made to extirpate, none to subjugate them: they have marvellously escaped that amalgamation with other nations, which one would think inevitable. Their numbers appear neither to increase nor diminish. The present race live as their forefathers lived, always in sight of the sky, sojourning on the green sward in the mossy dell, by the stream in the green wood, on the heath, or the rocky mountain, constantly familiar with all that is most beautiful in nature, yet the only people on the face of the earth without poetry of any kind, even without the poetry of legends, of a creed. 'Like the birds and squirrels, and other *fera natura* around them, they are born and die unnoticed, leaving behind no trace of their existence, not even a tomb.'"

From the most original portion of the work we take a short extract.

"We laughed, chatted, and sang; Lady Sarah was in the gayest mood, and her excessive vivacity sustained that of the rest of the party. Lucy alone continued depressed and silent. Wrapped in her mantle, with an averted face, she remained so mute and motionless, that she might have been mistaken for an inanimate figure; and, indeed, she was almost as little regarded by any of the party. Courtesy at length directed Lady Sarah's attention to her, and then I also spoke. She was gazing fixedly upon the calm, star-studded firmament, apparently lost in a reverie. The moonlight streamed upon her face: it had grown wan, and the fulness, as well as the bloom which had given it beauty, was gone. Her upraised eyes were fraught with an expression of the most intense yet resigned sorrow; and large glittering drops were slowly coursing from them. This was the first time I had observed the slightest demonstration of jealousy. I had even believed her nature too passive for the feeling. So perfect were her submission and endurance, that they gave her character almost the appearance of insensibility. 'You are dispirited,' I remarked, in a low tone, taking her hand in mine. There was a strange, damp coldness in its touch. She turned from me, and leaned, as if looking on the water, for a moment; when I spoke again, her tears were gone, and she talked cheerfully, though with a sweet, sad smile. We found our coach at the Temple Gardens, took it, set down Lady Sarah, and went home. I then wished my lady good-night, ordered my chair, and repaired to White's chocolate-house, where, having diverted myself by losing fifty-two pounds ten, at five-guinea-point whist, I returned finally to my house, though not before it was morning. The hall-

* This is a great mistake.—*Ed. Lit. Gaz.*

door was opened, after a length of time and a reiterated summons for admission, by a female servant, whose attire betrayed marks either of extraordinary carelessness or haste, and whose countenance struck me as remarkably portentous. 'Why are you here? and where are all the men?' I inquired, sternly; for fatigue and ill-fortune had put me out of humour. 'They have all been sent different ways, my lord. Some of them in search of your lordship, I believe, my lord, and to fetch another physician.' 'What is the matter?' 'My lady, my lord,—is—was—' 'Ill?' I seized the lamp she held, and hurried to Lucy's sleeping-chamber. Two or three women, with their faces buried in their aprons, stood crying near the door. A strong odour of aromatic vinegar and other restoratives was perceptible as one entered the room, which presented all the indications of sudden illness. Cloths, lint, and bandages, lay strewn around; basins and ewers had been in requisition; the tables were covered with phials and surgical instruments; a warm-bath was in readiness; and two surgeons conversing with a physician stood near the fireplace. I approached the bed, and beheld, enveloped in cambric and flannels, a still-life miniature of a man—a tiny, waxen-like infant—a dead male child, the once so much coveted heir. A larger form lay beside it, the face covered with a sheet. No one spoke; the silence was enough—it told me that Lucy was no more."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Wood-Pavement, and its Advantages; with a View of the Different Systems, contrasted with that of David Stead, Esq., the Original Patentee. By A. B. Blackie. London, Simpkin and Marshall; Manchester, Love and Barton. 1842.

MR. STEAD'S patent, first enrolled in May 1838, it appears, is for the employment of the hexagonal blocks particularly, but generally for all wood-pavements, of whatever description. And it is stated to be understood, that Mr. Stead "prompted by, and acting upon, the most eminent legal advice, is taking measures to stop the operations of all other parties, and to establish in a court of justice the rights to which he is entitled by his original patent, confirmed by an act of parliament." If the hexagonal be the best form of block for wood-pavement, we wish him success; but if any one of the other fifteen or sixteen be proved the more advantageous, we should regret his obtaining an injunction. On mechanical principles, and in consideration of the manner in which the blocks are placed,—vertically, with the ends of the fibres upwards, or as the tree grows,—we are inclined to favour the "original patent." Mr. Blackie has a strong leaning to the hexagon, and brings forward in support the opinions of Colonel Jackson, the experience of General De Bode, and reports and communications from the United States. Several woodcuts illustrate the individual figures and the combined appearance of three or four of the principal systems. The others are passed over as unworthy of notice. In the Russian general's letter, in the appendix, it is stated, that "after long and repeated trials of almost every method which the ingenuity of man could devise, the mode now universally approved and adopted is hexagonal blocks of fir-wood placed with the fibres of the wood running vertically. These are planted close together, on a good, sound, and level bottom. When the paving is completed, boiling tar, mixed with pitch, is poured over them, and a

small quantity of river-sand is then strewed over the tar." This would appear to be combining the asphalt and wood, and may be a useful hint to wood-paviors. No comment, however, is made on this plan by the author of the pamphlet, who appears to be thoroughly acquainted with the various bearings of his subject. The advantages of the hexagonal pavement, he argues, are "cheapness, cleanliness, comfort, and healthfulness."

The Divine Rule of Faith and Practice, &c. &c.
By W. Goode, M.A. Trin. Col. Camb., rector of St. Antholin, London. 2 vols. 8vo. Hatchard and Son.

These volumes, consisting of above 1450 pages, contain a strenuous Church-of-England exposition against what the rev. writer denounces as "the dangerous errors of the authors of the *Tracts for the Times* and the Romanists," and is consequently a work unfit for discussion in our miscellaneous and non-polemical Journal. Mr. Goode maintains the doctrines, that the holy Scripture has since the time of the apostles, and as handed down by them, been the sole divine rule of faith and practice to the Church, and that the apostolic succession is unbroken and alone worthy of adherence. He has bestowed immense labour upon his task, and is earnest in inculcating what he considers to be the truth.

Chambers's Information for the People. Vol. I.
8vo, double cols. Pp. 800. Edited and published by W. and R. Chambers, Edinburgh.

This vast mass of information is the very essence of cheap periodical literature. Fifty sheets of very various matter for the price which a dirty attorney charges for a dirty letter—six and eightpence—is a wonderful contrast of the useful and improving with the useless and imposing. We daresay the majority of readers feel the force of this so strongly that they would prefer the former to the latter: those that are of a contrary opinion say, Ay!

The mere enumeration of the multitude of subjects brought forward in this volume would occupy far more of our room than we could afford, were it necessary; but of the whole, consisting of condensations of more elaborate works and treatises, we shall only say, that there is a very great deal to enlarge the popular mind; and, perhaps, some portions rather too learned and recondite to come under that category with the matters more popularly treated.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

THE NIGER EXPEDITION.

Latest Intelligence.

FROM peculiar feelings, as well as from public considerations, we have been anxious to obtain the latest and most authentic accounts received of this disastrous Expedition. And, first, it is gratifying to have to state, that the earliest intelligence by the Combermere at Liverpool, published in the *Liverpool Courier* (generally an excellent authority), and copied thence into the London papers, was much exaggerated. If Capt. Nugdely reported that "all the commanders and most of the crews had died," he was in error; but the probability is, that the bad news gained in darkness as it travelled from him to the newspaper-office.

Secondly, we rejoice to learn, that the letter alluded to by us last week, and also inserted in all the London journals, which mentioned the amount of deaths at 85 or 86, was also an exaggeration. The exact words of the letter,

dated Fernando Po, Oct. 5, and since kindly communicated to us, are,—“The deaths have been altogether fifteen, five of whom were officers. The number of cases by the time we left the Albert had been 85 or 86,” i. e. cases of fever, whereof many were convalescent before the despatches came home.

The *Liverpool Mail*, which reached town this morning, has the following:—

“Capt. Trotter and many of the officers are alive and well. The following is taken from the Lady Combermere's report at the Liverpool Underwriters' Rooms:—

‘Extract from the log of the Lady Combermere, arrived from Africa, at Liverpool, Jan. 18, 1842.

‘Capt. Trotter, Lieut. Strange, Drs. M'William and Thompson, Rev. O. Shaw, Dr. Voegel, Messrs. Ruckman, Kerr, and Strange, were convalescent on the 26th October last.

‘The other officers and engineers attached to the expedition were in hospital at Clarence, except those who had been sent to Ascension in Her Majesty's brig Dolphin and Her Majesty's steam-vessel Wilberforce.

‘Capt. B. Allen died at Clarence on the 25th October last.”

From Capt. Trotter's despatch of Oct. 25th (the day on which poor Bird Allen died), and other sources, we learn farther, that the number of deaths, however, had accumulated to about thirty; and that there were a considerable proportion of sick in the hospital at Clarence, Fernando Po.

Mr. Willie, a young man engaged in the expedition, had died there. But, from the time that had elapsed, their removal from the cause of disease, and their medical treatment, though still in an African climate, it was hoped that very few more, if any, casualties would ensue.

Captain William had arrived at Ascension, and was convalescent, whither the Dolphin and Wilberforce had carried the earlier invalids.

After the Wilberforce left the Albert in the river, and Capt. Trotter wrote the melancholy presage, that, owing to the sickness falling so rapidly upon his vessel, from hour to hour, he knew not whether he should attempt the ascent of the Niger, or be obliged to abandon the cause, we lament to say that the latter alternative was the only one left him. The fever became general, and the dreadful prevalence of this scourge may be estimated when we tell, that out of the whole expedition, only four individuals escaped the fatal infection.

One sufferer was seized with insanity, and leapt overboard, and was drowned.

But even in the midst of these horrors, there were instances of providential care and protection. The officers, crews, engineers and all, being down with the fever, Dr. M'William in the Wilberforce, and Voegel, the naturalist (if we recollect aright), in the Albert, were driven to the strange task of navigating their respective steamers down the river. Dr. M'W. had some knowledge of an engineer's offices, but M. Voegel was entirely ignorant of them; and it was only by reading a few pages of Tredgold's work on the steam-engine, that he was enabled to perform this new and onerous duty. They were happily met by Capt. Becroft at Eboe, and the rest of the sad voyage was accomplished by his assistance. Had these vessels ever run aground, they must have been left by the tide, and every soul on board have perished. In their extremity they were saved by the exertions and presence of mind of the individuals we have named.

When the invalids at Clarence are sufficiently recovered, or as many as can man the Albert, Captain Trotter proposes to proceed to Ascension, and remain there with his unfor-

• The writer will please accept our thanks.—*Ed. Lit. Gaz.*

fortunate companions till their health is more completely restored. He would then desire to renew the expedition; but there cannot be a doubt of its recall by the Board of Admiralty. Indeed, the awful loss which has attended it must put a seal upon future efforts of the same kind.

We have only to add, that the colony remains *in situ*, but consisting altogether of blacks, without a white member.

The medical men are of opinion that the Niger fever is different from all others.

African Fever and Plague.—A letter from Cheltenham, signed “A Surgeon,” in the *Times* of Thursday, contains some striking and original remarks on the infection of malaria, fever, or plague, or by whatever name these fatal maladies are called. His theory is, that the disease is communicated, not by respiration and the lungs, but by impression upon the whole surface of the body. Thus the natives of Africa and other hot climates, anointing themselves with oil or unctuous substances, are preserved, whilst Europeans, who wash and cleanse the skin, are seized and perish. He notices, in support of this theory, that those engaged practically in the oil-trade in Turkey when pestilence rages seem to wear a charmed life; and that in the great plague of London no tallow-chandler was known to suffer from it. These are curious speculations, and might authorise a trial of the writer's remedial proposal, viz. to saturate the clothes worn with palm-oil; and especially in the evening and morning, when the malaria is most dangerous.

Rumoured Death of Sir Alex. Burnes, at Cabool.—The following is an extract of a letter from a member of the family of Sir A. Burnes, touching the above report:—“I daresay you have heard of the painful reports received a few days ago, stating that Sir A. Burnes had been killed in an insurrection at Cabool. This rumour only reached Bombay at the hour the mail came away; and though I cannot give it the most positive contradiction, we have every reason to discredit its truth—yet we look anxiously for the arrival of the next mail.”—We trust, indeed, that there is no foundation for this distressing report. Sir A. Burnes was endeared to all who knew him, and his death would prove a severe loss to our Indian empire.—*Ed. Lit. Gaz.*

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 10.—Mr. W. R. Hamilton, president, in the chair. Some of the donations announced this evening were particularly valuable: among which may be mentioned ten volumes, in folio and quarto, of scarce authors, the whole in most beautiful condition, presented by David Dundas, Esq., M.P., and the splendid work of Admiral Dumont d'Urville, the *Voyage of the Astrolabe*, consisting of twenty-six volumes of text and an atlas of 500 plates, many of them most exquisitely coloured, besides the large atlas of charts. The president read from the chair a letter from James Alexander, Esq., presenting 50*l.* for the purchase of books for the library. The papers read were as follows:—

1. The extract of a letter from Mr. Kiepert of Berlin, announcing that gentleman's intention, in company with two professors of the college of Posen—Mr. Loew, naturalist; Mr. Schenborn, philologist and archaeologist; and a young physician (natural philosopher), Dr. Berends,—to explore the most unknown districts of south-western Asia Minor; especially Caria, Lycia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, and Cyprus,

to add the results of their trigonometrical, and perhaps astronomical, observations to the survey of Phrygia, Lyconia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, executed in the years 1838 and 1839, by the Prussian officers in the service of the Porte (now in progress of publication). They intend also accurately to explore the antiquities of the south-western coast of Caria, which was surveyed in 1839 by the British navy (Captain Grave's survey). From the date of the letter, we have reason to believe that the party are already on the field of their labours.

2. Extract of a letter, dated the 21st of November last, from Professor Chaix of Geneva. Mr. Chaix says: "The Municipal Chamber of the canton has ordered that a copy of the map of the canton be presented to the Royal Geographical Society." The first triangulation for this map was executed with the theodolite by Col. Dufour and Messrs. Osterwald, Wolfshurger and Betaut. The position of 95 points has been determined by a much greater number of triangles; and their perfect coincidence with the French triangulations is such as to leave no doubt of the accuracy of this primary operation. All the roads and rivers have been levelled. The details of the survey are on a scale of $\frac{1}{11,250}$; and the mountains drawn from a series of horizontal curves of equal elevation, at a distance of 4 metres (about 13 feet) one above the other. The map is engraved on a scale of $\frac{1}{35,000}$, and has 700 indications of heights marked upon it; as also the soundings of the lake, the mean height of whose surface above the sea is 375 metres. The village of Chancy is the only one which is below this level. The greater part of the canton forms five plateaux, or table-lands, more than 60 metres above the surface of the lake.

For many years past a general survey of Switzerland has been going on. Its first operations were conducted by a Mr. Finsler. Col. Dufour is the present director of the work, which is in good progress. The general map of Switzerland is to be in twenty-five sheets, surveyed on a scale of $\frac{1}{35,000}$, and engraved on half that scale. Some of the cantons, following the example of Geneva, have determined to have their own cantons separately engraved, but only on a scale of $\frac{1}{50,000}$. Five sheets are in the hands of the engraver. The parts already surveyed are the Bernese Jura, Argovia, Thurgovia, Neuchâtel, Vaud, a part of Fribourg, Geneva, the south-west portion of the Bernese Alps, and the western half of the Vallais. In the latter country the engineers have been badly treated by the mountaineers. The map of the Vallais has pointed out the existence of a great number of *glens*, hitherto wholly unknown but to the shepherds. These valleys are generally longitudinal in the direction of the principal mountain-chains, and contain the sources of all the affluents to the Rhone on its right. This region also contains, at great heights, round basins, known in the Pyrenees under the name of *oules*, or cirques, having sometimes one or two small lakes in the centre. The inhabitants of the mountains have turned these basins to profit by excavating deep trenches in the ridges which separate them from their own valleys, by which means the latter are watered.

"For some days past," Mr. Chaix adds, "we have been, and still are, in the midst of melted and melting snows;" and *apropos* of his winter provisions, he says, "the anthracite coal of the valley is 2s. a cwt.; and fat coal of St. Etienne 4s., that is, 2l. and 4l. a ton!"

3. In a communication, dated Aliu Anba, 20th of July, 1841, Dr. Beke communicates some

intelligence which he had lately obtained respecting the state of slavery in the kingdom of Shoa. To the king's slaves a small daily portion of barley-meal is all the allowance made: the remainder of their sustenance is procured by themselves; but when unable to work, they are manumitted, and left entirely to their own resources. Allowance is made for children unable to work; and their age and numbers are ascertained by a yearly account of the population. Slaves can acquire, but not demise property; their master is their heir. The Negus allows to the slave's children his movables, which are of very trifling value. They themselves are employed as the king's slaves for ten years. Slaves can possess slaves; but their services cannot be substituted for their master's.

Beside the common road to Harar, there is one through the large Mohammedan town of Chercher, east of the river Hawash, not yet conquered by the king of Shoa. Many slaves are conveyed to the coast by this southern route.

From Ankober, on the 24th of Aug., 1841, Dr. Beke informs his correspondent that he was preparing for an expedition to the westward; and even contemplated a journey across the continent to join the Niger Expedition, for the success of which he expresses much anxiety on account of the season at which it commenced its operations. He had found some iron in his way to Gedum, and received aluminous slate from Bulga, and supposes that coal will be found near it; and hopes that Capt. Harris, the East India Company's envoy to the Negus, will be able to ascertain the fact. Coal has not, as has been asserted, been found near Tajûrah. The Abyssinians have no notion of gardening; but by Dr. Beke's own exertions, he had raised most of our common culinary vegetables, to the great satisfaction of the members of the mission to Shoa. Potatoes, introduced by the French in Tigre, had been brought to Shoa, and cultivated there successfully.

The rains have continued from June to August; but not with their usual violence.

4. The last and principal paper of the evening was a most interesting disquisition concerning the three voyages of Martin Frobisher, by Captain Becher, R.N. Independent of the value of this paper, as clearing up, in a most satisfactory manner, what has been long very confused, the quaint and picturesque style of the quotations from the old accounts of these travels gave an additional interest to the subject. Frobisher's three voyages were undertaken in the years 1576, 1577, and 1578: the first with the laudable object of geographical discovery; the two last with that of obtaining treasure. It is said of the first voyage, that "the Captain-General Martin Frobisher sailed from Ratcliffe, in the river Thames, on the 7th June, her majesty Queen Elizabeth honouring the adventurous navigators with her parting farewell;" or, as Hackluyt has it, "At 12 of the clock we wayed at Deptford, and bare down by the court, where we shotte off our ordinance, and made the best shewe we could. Her majesty, beholding the same, commended it, and bade us farewell, with shaking her hand at us out of the window." This first voyage is then described, and critically examined; and the absurdity of the *strait* laid down in the old charts through the southern part of Greenland, then called Friesland, clearly pointed out, as resulting from a misconception of the navigator's real route, which was round Cape Farewell. On the 10th of July Frobisher entered the strait which bears his

name. The second expedition started "on Whitsunday, being the sixe-and-twentieth of Maye, in the year of our Lord God 1577, when Captain Frobisher departed from Blackwall with one of the Queen's Majestie's shippes, called the Aide, of nine-score tunne, or thereabouts," &c. On the 16th July, the little squadron reached the entrance of the strait. Frobisher explored it, took possession of the country, and gave names to several harbours and inlets.

In this voyage the murder of the natives took place, in revenge for their treachery, by which, in the former voyage, five of Frobisher's men were lost. The ships were freighted with such a quantity of what was called "stone or gold minerall as was judged to countervail the charges of this and the first voyage to these countries with sufficient interest to the venturers, whereby they might both be satisfied for this time and also in time to come, if it pleased God and our prince," as the journal quaintly says, "to expecte a much more benefite out of the bowels of those septentrionale paralleles, which long time hath concealed itself till this present," &c. On the 24th Aug. the vessels turned homewards, and arrived off the Land's End on the 17th Sep. The supposed valuable ore was committed to keeping in the castle of Bristol; and a third expedition, on a far greater scale than the preceding, was equipped by special orders of her majesty. The ships left Harwich on the 31st May; and this voyage, though it wholly failed in its great object, that of obtaining gold, was of considerable importance in a geographical point of view. Captain Becher therefore discusses it with close attention, and ultimately arrives at the conclusion, that Frobisher's mistaken strait is no other than Hudson's Strait; and that, had Frobisher continued onwards, he might have deprived Hudson, in a subsequent year, of the honour of discovering Hudson's Bay. Frobisher knew he was not in the strait he had before visited, and is asserted to have said, that "had it not been for the charge and care he had of the fleet and freighted shippes, he both would and could have gone through to the South Sea."

We cannot give all the details of this very long but extremely interesting paper, particularly valuable as correcting the chart, so long defective, of Frobisher's Strait. Corrected charts of the ships' routes were exhibited to the meeting.

STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

ON Monday, — Mr. T. Tooke, vice-president, in the chair, — foreign honorary members and fellows were elected. A paper was read "On the two Sicilies," by J. Goodwin, Esq., her majesty's consul there.

This paper treated at length of the progress of the two Sicilies under the Spanish Bourbons, from 1734 to 1840; but as our limits will not permit us to give a general abstract, we shall confine our observations to the present state of the two kingdoms, commencing with that of Naples.

In 1840 the population of the latter realm was 6,177,598; and the territory is thus appropriated to agricultural purposes:

Corn-lands	12,000 sq. miles.
Vineyards	1,000 "
Woods and olive-grounds	3,000 "
Gardens and orchards	500 "
Pastures and sheep-walks	6,500 "
Wastes	9,000 "
Total area	32,000

The chief products of husbandry are corn, wine, oil, cotton, flax, hemp, liquorice, paste,

silk, and wool. The average crop of wheat is $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions of imperial quarters, and the yearly consumption about 5 millions. The yearly production of wine is about 400,000 pipes, the greater portion of which is consumed at home. About 70,000 tuns of olive-oil are expressed yearly, half of which is retained for home-consumption. The yearly crop of cotton is about 10,000 tuns. The annual production of raw silk 1,000,000 lbs., of which half is consumed at home. The chief manufactures are those of cloths, leathers, and silks. The woollen factories produce yearly about 6000 pieces of fine cloth for the markets of Naples and Palermo, and from 60 to 80,000 pieces of coarse cloth for the use of the peasantry and fishermen. The cotton manufacture is principally in the hands of Swiss and German capitalists. The wages of men is *1s. 2d.* to *1s. 6d.* a day, of females *8d.* to *10d.*, and of children *5d.* to *7d.* About 1500 tuns of malleable, and 500 of pig, iron are made yearly in the realm. The inland trade has increased considerably of late years, since the roads have been improved. The foreign trade of Naples amounted in 1840 to 1,526,845*l.* of imports, and 612,590*l.* of exports. The building of merchant-ships—promoted by the abundance of materials, and the cheapness of workmanship (25 per cent less than in England)—has made great progress within the last twenty years. In 1824 the total capacity of the Neapolitan marine was 8000 tuns; and in 1837 it amounted to 150,634 tuns, comprised in 7800 vessels. The peace-establishment of the army has been fixed by the present king at 29,700 foot and 4463 horse—making a total of 34,163—and the war-establishment at 61,834 infantry and 7864 horse; the expense of the peace-establishment in 1835 amounted to 1,200,000*l.* The military force is recruited by a yearly conscription, to which all Neapolitans, with some few exceptions, are subject from 18 to 25 years of age. The term of service is eight years for the guards, and five years for the line. The Neapolitan navy consisted in 1837 of 19 sail vessels, 3 steamers, and about 30 gun-boats. The widows and female orphans of seamen are allowed pensions amounting to one-sixth of the pay of their deceased relatives.

The regular clergy amounted in 1825 to 8455, and the seculars to 27,612—making a total of 36,067, being at the rate of a clergyman to 151 souls. In the same year there were upwards of 8000 nuns.

The population of Sicily is 1,800,000. The greater portion of the island belongs to the nobility and gentry; the smaller to the crown, the church, and the corporate towns. Most of the landlords reside in Palermo; a few inhabit the larger towns, but more live on their estates during the whole of the year. The agricultural population consists of three great classes—the *Borgesi*, or yeomanry; the *Inquilini*, or small farmers; and the *Contadini*, or peasantry.

The daily provisions of men and boys in common are $\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. of coarse bread, and a half-pint of oil. The men receive likewise a quart of wine a day throughout the year, which allowance is given to the lads only in summer. In May the allowance is larger than usual; and in June, July, and August, which are the harvest-months, the labourers eat and drink without stint or restriction. The monthly servants differ from the yearly in receiving a certain quantity of wheat instead of bread; their wages are somewhat lower than those of persons hired by the year. The day-labourer earns in general about *1s.* a day; receiving *4d.* in money, and the value of *8d.* in food. The peasantry occupy filthy hovels, the floors of

which are covered by rushes, and the walls plastered with mud. Farm-houses being scarce, the labourers live in villages, whence they go forth at sunrise, and return at sunset; if, however, their scene of labour is at some distance, the peasant rides to it on the Monday morning, and returns on Saturday night, sleeping during the intermediate nights in a straw hut, or natural cavern. All kinds of field-work are done in a slovenly manner; the rudest implements being used, and all modern improvements strenuously resisted. Two bushels of wheat sown to an acre will generally yield from 16 to 25 bushels. A good crop of corn may be reckoned at 2,000,000 quarters of wheat, and 100,000 quarters of barley: 1,800,000 quarters of wheat are consumed at home, which is at the rate of one quarter a head for each inhabitant. The exportation of wine in 1838 amounted to 50,000 pipes. The broad-leaved olive yields about 7500 tuns of oil; of which quantity 5000 tuns are consumed at home, and 2500 sent abroad—chiefly to France. There are few large trees in Sicily; the only forest is that of Caronia, between Palermo and Messina, which produces oak, ash, pine, and elm; but little use is made of it, from the want of roads to convey it to the coast. The silkworms produce annually about 460,000,000 lbs. of raw silk, of which 360,000 lbs. are exported.

Mining industry may be said to be confined to the excavation for sulphur. The area producing this mineral extends over 2600 square miles, and is principally remarkable for the fantastic shape of its cliffs and mountains. The formation is tertiary, and presents successive strata of shell, limestone, white and blue marl, intermixed with beds of gypsum. The district contains 150 mines, which yield from 50,000 to 80,000 tons of sulphur annually. The sulphur is picked from the rocks in a crude state by the miners, and gathered into heaps by boys. The miners only work 250 days in the year, and the hours of labour are only six daily, for which they receive from 16*d.* to 20*d.*

The burners, who extract the sulphur by fusing the ore in kilns made of gypsum and stone, or sometimes in close vessels or furnaces, usually earn about a shilling a day. There are about 4400 persons regularly employed in the sulphur-mines, consisting of 1300 pickmen, 2600 boys, 300 burners, and 200 clerks and others, to which may be added 2600 carriers and 1000 wharfingers, indirectly engaged in the mines; making a total of 8000 persons. A small portion of the sulphur carried down to Girgenti serves for the use of a royal refinery, whence it is exported to France and Austria. Formerly, when the use of sulphur was confined to medicinal purposes, and to the manufacture of gunpowder, the exportation was small; but as soon as the mineral was applied to the making of the carbonate of soda, the amount became considerable. In the years 1832 to 1838 there were 374,312 tons exported, being at the rate of 56,857 tons annually.

In 1838, a monopoly of the sulphur-trade was established under the name of a privileged company; and Mr. Goodwin gives an interesting account of its origin, progress, and recent extinction, of which, however, our space will not permit us to give any abstract. The fisheries of Sicily are considerable, and employ between 4000 and 5000 hands.

In 1835 there were 2058 vessels attached to Sicily, possessing a tonnage of 41,800.

The author represents the state of literature, science, and the arts, as very unsatisfactory. The periodical press, subject to censorship, sends forth little beyond monthly and half-

weekly publications, compiled from foreign journals, and barren of general interest. The regular clergy consist of twenty-three orders, whose united members amount to nearly 8000. The secular body comprises about 10,000. There are 5000 nuns, of whom 1500 reside in Palermo; they inhabit convents well endowed, for the most part, by founders and testators. Their large estates are managed by priests and lawyers, under the control of a guardian; and the prioress is strictly accountable to the bishop of the diocese for the maintenance of order and discipline.

Mr. Goodwin is of opinion, that although the improvement of the two Sicilies is slow, yet that it is gradually progressing; and that the condition of the people is materially improved. The great natural disadvantages are the dryness and sterility of certain provinces, the want of navigable rivers, the height of the Apennine chain of mountains, the insecurity of ports and harbours, and the frequency and destructiveness of eruptions and earthquakes: but all these may be in a great measure alleviated by industry, and the judicious employment of a little capital.

We have seen that already foreigners are investing money in mercantile concerns; and, as these are flourishing, it is but reasonable to expect that they will be productive of general good.

PHARMACEUTICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 12.—In last week's *Literary Gazette* we gave an abstract of the scientific papers read and discussed at the first meeting of the Pharmacists in their own house. On the same occasion an address from the president was read, expatiating on the nature and object of these meetings as they are connected with the general purposes of the society, and on the tendency and advantages of the education it is intended to introduce among the body. The reading of papers, the exhibition of improvements or new inventions, and scientific discussion of novelties in pharmaceutical chemistry, are the primary objects of the evening meetings; but the establishment of a school of pharmacy, the regulation of examinations, and the appointment of examiners, are among the propositions of the society. Lectures, pharmaceutical demonstrations, a library, and museum of materia medica, are also contemplated, to facilitate the acquisition of knowledge by the rising generation. Experience in the nature and properties of bodies, and the influence of, and alterations by, mixture thereon, and an acquaintance with the materia medica and botany, are among the essentials set down as requisite for all who have to do with pharmaceutical operations. But it is to pharmacy that these important subjects are stated to be made subsidiary and subservient. To this end also great importance is attached to the collection of the finest and most perfect specimens of the materia medica which it is intended to form, so that the pupil may be impressed with the paramount principle of employing none but the best articles, and of the first quality; and for the carrying out this view, it is urged on the society to be ever watchful to point out and diffuse a knowledge of the best methods of distinguishing between good and bad drugs.

ELECTRICAL SOCIETY.

Jan. 18.—Read, 1st.—A further communication from Mr. Iremonger relative to the "hydrostatic galvanometer;" but, as it related to mechanical arrangements, a verbal description, unaided by drawings, would be of little avail.

The improvements suggested promise to render the instrument, when better known, extremely useful. 2. The remainder of Professor Jacob's paper, illustrated by drawings of apparatus, consisting of what was termed a regulator with a fluid, and another with a solid, resisting medium; being contrivances to regulate the passing current, so as to keep it always of the same intensity as measured by the galvanometer. The paper concluded with a list of experimental applications of these instruments. 3. By the secretary, a brief notice of the method employed during the last six months, by Dr. Leeson, for producing a constant action in voltaic arrangements, especially when used for the deposition of metals: it consists in exciting the battery with a solution of bichromate of potash containing sulphuric acid; the two may be mixed, or kept apart by a diaphragm. Several facts connected with this arrangement are in the course of investigation, and will be laid before the society. Mr. Weekes's register for December was then presented; and the meeting adjourned.

INSTITUTE OF BRITISH ARCHITECTS.

Jan. 17.—Mr. J. B. Papworth in the chair. Signor Clemente Folchi, V. P. of the Academy of St. Luke at Rome, was elected a corresponding member; and, besides other presents, various additions were made to the Institute's valuable collection of specimens of building-stone.

The paper read was by Mr. A. J. Mason, "On the method of removing houses in the United States." The writer, in order to explain how the removal of houses became desirable, traced the rise of New York city, from its discovery by Hudson up to the present time, and shewed what extraordinary improvements had been made there by widening streets, and re-arranging the whole town. The original streets were narrow, ill-drained, and badly ventilated; and it is to the endeavour to remedy these evils that the removal of houses has become necessary. Sometimes the buildings are in good condition; and it is then that their removal bodily takes place. It is effected by means of a cradling of timbers introduced beneath the walls, working on other timbers beneath them (which are well greased), acted on by screws. It is done slowly; the rate of transport being about three feet each day. The cost of thus moving an ordinary two-story brick house twelve or fourteen feet is about 20*l*. In 1838, three brick houses, attached, each three stories high, were moved back sixteen feet, without the slightest disturbance to the fabric, or the removal of any of the furniture. Mr. S. Brown was the inventor of the mode. A discussion followed; in which Mr. Donaldson, Mr. Papworth, the Rev. R. Burgess, and others, took part. Mr. Poynter mentioned that a church-tower in Italy had been moved in the same manner.

LONDON INSTITUTION.

Jan. 19.—(Soirée.) Prof. Grove gave a résumé of the notable discoveries and epochal changes in science subsequent to 1819, the date of the completion of the building of the London Institution. Mechanics, the first-born of the sciences, within the period selected presents no epochal change, but vast practical masteries of mind over matter, in railroads, the steam-navigation of the Atlantic, and the still more strange power, by winch or treadle, emulating mind, the calculating-machine. Chemistry offers the condensation of the gases; the discovery of the metals, vanadium, zirconium,

thorium, silicium, glucinium, aluminium, yttrium, and magnesium; of the elements, bromine, analogous to iodine. Chemistry also has been enriched by the theories of isomorphism, isomerism, and substitutions of Dumas. Electricity has afforded the widest field for novelty, and it has been well cultivated: we need only mention definite electrolysis, thermo-electricity, electro-magnetism, magneto-electricity, and the applications of electricity to motion, to the telegraph, the electrotype, electrotint, &c. Thermotics, specific heat by Dulong and Petit, and radiant heat by Melloni and Forbes, came next. And then light, with a slight allusion to Prof. Grove's views with regard to the etherial theory, followed by a detail of the various practical applications of artificial and solar light—the hydro-oxygen or Drummond light—the oxy-ol or Bude light, photography, Talbot and Daguerre, etching the plates of the latter, beautiful specimens of which from Munich were exhibited. Lyell's theory of geology was touched upon; also recent granite, and, slightly, glacial action. And lastly, astronomy and its recent triumph, the discovery by Bessel of the parallax of a fixed star. When we say that the several subjects enumerated above were treated in a masterly manner, and that the peroration was eloquent and impressive, some idea of the gratification afforded to the numbers assembled may be formed. The large theatre was thronged—and subsequent to the discourse, crowds surrounded the novelties exhibited in the library.

SOCIETY OF ARTS.

On Wednesday, an extraordinary general meeting was held; Mr. Tooke in the chair. The report of a committee appointed to take into consideration the original objects of the society—the manner in which they have been interfered with by other societies—the field which is now open for the labours of the Society of Arts—and the means by which it can be rendered more efficient as regards its objects, constitution and management, &c.—was read, and negatively by a large majority. At this we rejoice; for had the report been carried and acted upon, the speedy dissolution of the society might have been certainly anticipated. This, at all events, is the opinion of many of its oldest and warmest friends. A resolution, in lieu of the report, was carried; it was to the effect, that it be referred to a select committee to report what means can be suggested for giving additional interest to the society's meetings, and additional motives to the public to become members of it, without involving any proposition for altering the constitution of the society. Several good speeches were made, by Mr. Hoblyn, Mr. D. Pollock, Mr. Rotch, and others.

PARIS LETTER.

Paris, Jan. 18, 1842.

Academy of Sciences. Sitting of Jan. 10.—A letter was read from Prof. Melloni at Naples, describing certain means adopted by him for repairing some galvanometers which he had brought from Paris, and which were rendered unfit for use by the journey. The instrument was found to be as liable to injury from motion as the barometer, and therefore it was of importance to devise means for readily repairing any damage sustained.—M. Walferdin presented to the Academy a new metastatic thermometer, with alcohol instead of mercury. It acted as a differential thermometer, and allowed of variations of temperature being observed with the greatest nicety.—M. Aimée communicated the

result of a series of meteorological observations made at Algiers during 1840. The mean temperature in winter was 12·4 deg. of the centigrade scale, or 54 Fah.; in the spring 15·4 cent., or 60 Fah.; in the summer 23·5 cent., or 74 Fah.; and in the autumn 17·8 cent., or 64 F. The mean height for the whole year was nearly the same as that for the autumn.—M. Elie de Beaumont read a report on the geological observations made by M. Durocher during his late travels in the north of Sweden, Norway, Finland, Russia, and Denmark, in which he noticed principally the phenomena connected with erratic blocks. He observed that the streaks found on the surfaces of rounded rocks in Finland, especially the granitic rocks, were sometimes almost microscopic, sometimes as large as the ruts made by cart-wheels; and in Norwegian Lapland they were observed to be all accompanied by heaps of diluvial matter, extending to immense distances. In general the streaks on the rocks were parallel to each other, but in some cases they were at right angles. The erratic blocks were generally of granite or gneiss; but between St. Petersburg and the Niemen, blocks of no less than fourteen different kinds of rocks were found, all the known sites of which were in Finland. These blocks were sometimes 20 or 25 feet in thickness, and their angles were by no means rounded or worn, so that the idea of friction having occurred during their transport was removed. The most eastern limit of the district in Russia in which these blocks are found is the Volga. It appeared that the south of Sweden might be taken as a kind of centre from which these blocks started, and that they were found on the imaginary radii of an arc, passing through Moscow at one end, and Ostend at the other. M. Elie de Beaumont avoided pronouncing any theory of his own, in this report, as to the mode of transport of these blocks, and merely gave an enumeration of facts; at the same time he recapitulated the leading features of the theory of M. Agassiz, who accounts for their motion by the presence of glaciers, and observed that great weight was to be attached to the opinion of that eminent naturalist.

The commissioners on the plans for the tomb of Napoleon have published their report. They reject all the plans sent in for the first competition as impracticable or unsuitable, and recommend that a new competition should be authorised. They also advise, that the plan should consist of a circular chapel, or crypt, under the dome of the Invalides, open to the church above, and containing a simple sarcophagus in granite or porphyry; while outside the edifice an imperial equestrian statue in bronze shall be erected,—probably in the court, or on the esplanade of the Invalides.

M. Royer, who was sent last year into Germany by the Minister of Public Instruction to examine into the military and civil organisation of the medical profession, has published several long and interesting reports on this subject in the *Moniteur*. It is highly favourable to the German system.

An interesting volume, the *Memoirs and Travels of the Duke d'Enghien*, has been ushered into the world within the last few days by the Comte de Choulot. It forms a valuable addition to the historical works of this century.

LITERARY AND LEARNED.

Oxford, Jan. 14.—The first day of Hilary term, the following degrees were conferred:—

Masters of Arts.—S. Waldegrave, fellow of All Souls' College; H. W. Cripps, fellow of New Coll.; Rev. G. T. Driffield, W. E. Buckley, fellows of Brasen. Coll.; A. J.

* See among our Varieties, p. 69.

Christie, fellow of Oriel Coll.; Rev. T. R. Branfoot, Trinity College.
Bachelors of Arts.—N. T. Travers, scholar of Lincoln College; W. F. Everest, Magd. Hall; J. W. Kirkham, Jesus College.

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

Jan. 15.—The Right Hon. Sir A. Johnston in the chair.—A paper, by Lieut. Newbold, "On the Hindu processes of quarrying and polishing granite," was read by the secretary. The most usual mode followed in India is to employ the agency of fire. In this process, the rock is covered with dry bushes of the various acacias common on the plains, which are then fired, and kept burning until quite consumed. The intense heat causes a separation or exfoliation of the granite, to the depth, perhaps, of 24 inches in the centre of the fire, but gradually thinning off towards the edges. The piece thus exfoliated is detached by driving in small iron wedges at the extremities; and is finally raised by a powerful lever. Sometimes the rock proves more refractory than usual, and then it is customary to pour cold water upon it when hot, or to drop on the surface a heavy boulder of green-stone, or granite.

When blocks are required for statuary or mill-stones, or for any other purpose where greater thickness than one or two feet is requisite, another process is followed, precisely similar to that employed by the ancient Egyptians in quarrying the granite of Syene. A great number of holes, an inch square, and of different depths, according to the size of the block wanted, are bored in the rock, close to each other, forming a connected chain around the piece to be detached. Each hole is then fitted with an iron wedge, and the whole are simultaneously and unremittingly struck with iron hammers, until their united force overcomes the adhesion of the block. The chisels used in piercing the holes are kept cool by pouring water upon them while working, as is done in Europe.

When long and thinner slabs are required for bridges, pavements, lintels, &c. a third process is employed, combining the principles of the two former. The rock is heated, as in the first mode, and the separation is completed by driving wedges into a chain of holes, as in the second. In this way Lieut. Newbold has seen blocks of 80 feet in length separated. He also observed that the Hindus take advantage of the calorific action of the sun's rays in promoting the separation of the granite slabs; and that they select the hot season for their work accordingly. He found the temperature of a rock at Dewaconda to be $120\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, while that of the surrounding air was only 100° in the sun, and $95\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ in the shade. Sometimes they pour cold water into the clefts made by the wedges, which greatly hastens the separation of the block.

The polish given to Indian granites is at least equal to what is found in Egypt; and good specimens may be seen in the mausolea of Gollconda, at Bejanuggur, Galberga, and many other places in the peninsula. To effect this beautiful polish two processes are followed. When a flat surface is required, the granite is slightly smoothed and flattened by an iron tool; and is then rubbed with a large and heavy block of granite, hollowed on its under surface, and having the hollow filled up by a mixture of lac and corundum. The mixture adheres strongly to the stone, which is tightly fixed between two rods. The extremities of these rods form handles for two workmen, who draw the stone backwards and forwards over the block to be polished, occasionally throwing cold water on the surface, to prevent the lac from melting. When the

piece to be polished is of a more varied form, as a cornice or moulding, a piece of wood, with the corundum mixture, or even a lump of the mixture alone, is used, instead of the granite polisher. Any one who has seen the process will be strongly reminded of it by the paintings at Thebes, representing sculptors polishing a statue; which are copied by Rossellini, and in Wilkinson's *Ancient Egyptians*. Lieut. Newbold mentioned a remarkable fact connected with the granite of India,—that much of it was in the form of spheroids and bosses, having a concentric laminar structure, like the coats of an onion; which frequently exfoliated by the action of the air, throwing off curved laminae of very varied magnitude. This exfoliation of mountain masses produces some of the most picturesque features of the Indian landscape. It is the cause of its singular dome-shaped mountains and mammillary masses crowned with tors, which would in England be considered Druidical. Rough sketches of some of these, from Bellary and Bayagudda, were shewn to the meeting, strongly resembling the Cheese-writing and Logan stones, so well known in Cornwall.

The paper concluded with some account of the uses to which granite is applied in India; and a brief notice of the colossal temples and figures, and the pillars, obelisks, and bridges of this material, existing throughout the peninsula.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES.

Jan. 20.—Mr. Amyot in the chair. Sir Henry Ellis communicated an account of a project, in the time of Charles I., for the foundation of "Mounts of Piety;" i.e. houses for lending money on pledges (*Monts de Piété*) in England. In some introductory remarks, he shewed how these establishments had been first invented in Italy in the fifteenth century, as a relief to the more indigent class of society against the oppressions of the Jews and Lombards; and how, towards the end of the sixteenth century, they had found their way into France and Germany. They still exist in France. The document itself consisted chiefly in a statement of the advantages which would arise from the introduction of such institutions in England; of a statement of the evils arising from the extortions then practised in London by usurers and brokers; and of the manner in which the proposed establishments would counteract them. Sir H. Ellis, in his introductory remarks, supposes that the government entertained the design of acting upon the recommendations of this paper, but that the project was rendered abortive by the breaking out of the civil wars. We may observe, that some years ago the same kind of plan was again proposed in England, to take the place of the present system of pawnbroking; but that the pawnbrokers had sufficient influence to overthrow it.

LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK:—

Monday.—Geographical, 8½ p.m.; Entomological (anniversary meeting), 8 p.m.; Medical, 8 p.m.
Tuesday.—Medical and Chirurgical, 8½ p.m.; Zoological, 8½ p.m.
Wednesday.—Soc. of Arts, 8 p.m.; Medico-Botanical, 8 p.m.; Microscopical, 8 p.m.
Thursday.—Royal, 8½ p.m.; Antiquaries, 8 p.m.; Royal Soc. of Literature, 4 p.m.; Numismatic, 7 p.m.
Friday.—Royal Institution, 8½ p.m.
Saturday.—Westminster Medical, 8 p.m.; Mathematical, 8 p.m.

THE DRAMA.

Covent Garden.—*Elena Uberti*.—Count Ubaldo, Mr. Harrison; *Sigifredo*, Mr. Leffler; *Count Guido*, Mr. Stretton; *Boemando*, Mr. C. White;

Gualtiero, Mr. Wigan; *Imberga*, Miss Grant; and *Elena Uberti*, Miss Adelaide Kemble. Such is the title and such the cast of Mercadante's opera, produced at this theatre on Saturday last, and repeated on Tuesday with unequivocal and increasing success. And in spite of the slowness of the second act—of which more in its turn—the opera, we think, will grow in public favour nightly. Many sweet passages strike pleasingly on the ear more attuned by repetition. The overture is meagre, and without a passage to call for notice; and yet, as a whole, it is pretty enough. The first act is of like character, with this difference, however, that it does contain three or four agreeable and attractive morceaux. To these have been added a well-known air of Pacini's, introduced, of course, expressly for Miss Kemble:—and here we would check our descriptive, and pause in her praise. This air our *prima donna* sings with fine effect. And this is great merit. All who have also heard it given with the Italian words must be sensible of the great difference between the two languages when wedded to music peculiar to the one, and must appreciate the skilful and efficient manner in which Miss Kemble, who sings both, invests in the opera the inferior language with an effect beyond what could possibly be expected. The second act, to which we have already applied the character of slowness, is in truth excessively heavy up to the finale, when a beautiful quintett and chorus give a foretaste of the beauties of the third and concluding act. Therein is concentrated all, with the few exceptions to which we have alluded, the sterling music of the opera. And in our mention of it, we shall include the exertions of the principal singers above named. The first scene affords a duo scena between the lovers *Guido* and *Elena*, of delicious harmony, and sung with such intense feeling, melody, and execution, as to command an instant encore. Mr. Stretton's voice and acting are greatly improved. The next scena and air, though somewhat long, is distinguished by considerable beauty, beyond, unfortunately, the powers of Mr. Harrison to make prominent. He is a very charming ballad or song-singer; but in this opera, as in *Norma*, he fails in doing justice to the composer, and is an inefficient support to his fellow-singers. From this the scene changes (*en passant* we may remark, the scenery, dresses, and appointments, are magnificent, and in strict accordance with the times of the Guelphs and Ghibellines); and we have an exquisite distant cathedral chant, broken most effectively here and there by *Elena*, sola, on the stage, in recitative, and followed by a prayer composed and sung with chaste beauty—a gem in its way, and forming a marked and striking contrast to the outbursting wildness of the finale, arranged on the stage like that of the *Cenerentola* and *Sonnambula*. In the finale Miss Kemble's vocal display proves her first rate, and confirms all that has been written in her praise.

Surrey Theatre.—*Land Sharks and Sea Gulls*, a tragical and horrific drama, founded on Captain Glascock's naval romance, has been produced here by Mr. Haines, with sufficient melodramatic crimes and miseries to petrify the ultra-Thames population with delight. It distresses the females to their utmost capacity, and is rewarded with enthusiastic exclamations and weeping. In short, it is sweetly dreadful.

VARIETIES.

Schloss's Bijou.—This ingenious and tasteful miniature, which Sir E. Bulwer happily called

the humming-bird of our gay annuals, has, upon that hint, been mounted in a manner extremely beautiful for presentation to the Royal Family, in compliment to the christening of the Prince of Wales. Her Majesty's copy is deposited on the breast of a white rose of mother-of-pearl, with its tiny glass like a dew-drop in the rainbow by its side. A humming-bird is sipping from between the rose-leaves. The sprig is of silver gilt. Prince Albert's copy is on another rose, with different foliage—in allusion to Germanic national emblems. That for the Duchess of Kent is another variety. For the Princess Royal, the *Bijou* is suspended, like a fruit, on a golden pine-tree; the glass, her own portrait (which is one in the publication), and the lines accompanying it, elegantly framed, forming other fruits hanging on each side. The infant Prince's copy is laid on an exquisitely carved cabinet of ivory, surmounted by the plume of Wales. The whole are executed with extraordinary skill, and stand a few inches high on velvet-covered pedestals enriched with various ciphers and devices, and covered with bell-glasses. Of all the pretty things got up for this gratifying occasion—though some may be more gorgeous and costly—there will not be any (we venture to predict) more charming or appropriate than Mr. Schloss's well-imagined, and loyal, and patriotic tribute.

Gresham's Ring.—Among the compliments paid on laying the foundation of the new Royal Exchange, and the splendid banquet at the Mansion House in honour of the day, the most appropriate that could be conceived, was the presentation to the Lord Mayor, by Mr. Newman of the Bridge-house, of a gold ring in his possession, found in the bed of the Thames when London Bridge was built, and on good grounds believed to be that of the patriotic and liberal Sir Thomas Gresham. We have seen this relic several years ago: it is of plain and very fine gold, with a signet engraved T. G. No hand could be better entitled to wear it, than the present Lord Mayor's, whose accession to office was marked by the birth of a Prince of Wales, and whose career, as yet only of two month's continuance, has been marked by such another memorable event. It seems destined for one of the most brilliant in the civic annals since the age of Gresham, and the occupant of the chair determined to prove himself not unworthy of the epoch.

Electrotint.—A new application of the electrotint; instead of the metal being thrown down from the solution upon a metallic plate previously engraved, and thereby a copy in relief being produced to serve as a mould for further deposition thereon for the reproduction of the engraved plate, or rather its facsimile, for copperplate printing, the copper (or any metal) is deposited on the surface of German silver or plated copper, prepared by the artist with a composition resembling black paint. This drawn picture (as it were) being in relief, the new electro-plate will be in intaglio, or with indentations corresponding with the projections of the composition, and ready for the printing-ink and transfer of the design to paper. In this way, without the touch of the graver, may the facsimile of the peculiar handling of artists be obtained, and the spirit of their original paintings be preserved and multiplied *ad infinitum*. Specimens have been forwarded to us, but with a request for very allowance, as they are first attempts. The head of a dog, requiring fine work, is rather harsh, 'tis true. But the fisherman, sketched from life, in electrotint, by T. Sampson, is very fine: the stern and honest, rugged

and rude, man and implements are admirably given. The electrotint holds forth high promise in skilful hands.

Normal Schools in Scotland.—The Scotch journals state that government is about to grant 10,000*l.*, and 1,000*l.* for the establishment and support of two Normal Schools, one in Edinburgh and the other in Glasgow.

Oxford Poetry Professorship.—Mr. Williams having retired from the contest, the Rev. J. Garbett will be elected without opposition. 921 to 623 votes were promised on either side.

Died within the last few days, Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq., senior vice-president of the Linnæan Society. Mr. Lambert for many years had been identified with the Linnæan Society; and few of its meetings passed without some rare specimen or other connected with the pursuits of the society, more especially with reference to the history of plants, being exhibited by him. In consequence of his death, there was no paper read at the meeting on Tuesday evening; the only business transacted being the election of three fellows, and notice given that the election of a librarian, to supply the place of Professor Don, deceased, would take place on the evening of the 15th of February next, at half-past seven o'clock. Mr. Lambert was not only a great botanist, but a great encourager of botany; and to him the science in England is very deeply indebted. As a private gentleman, he mixed constantly with the best and most intellectual society of the land, was of polished manners, and full of information.

Miss Isabel Hill.—We lament to announce the death of this pleasant writer and amiable woman, of whom, and of whose talents, only a fortnight ago we spoke in the kindest terms, in union with the literary advent of her affectionate brother, Mr. Benson Hill, to the editorship of the *Monthly Magazine*.

LITERARY NOVELTIES.

Mr. Maxwell, the popular author of the "Wild Sports of the West," *Tales of Waterloo*, "Life of Wellington," &c., announces an Irish Novel, in monthly Parts, entitled *Cæsar de Courcy*, with the Adventures of his servant Marc Antony O'Toolle.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Memoirs of the Life of the Rev. L. Carpenter, LL.D., edited by his Son, 8vo, 12*s.*—*The History of Egypt under the Romans*, by S. Sharpe, 8vo, 7*s.*—*George Cruikshank's Omnibus*, 100 Illustrations, med. 8vo, 10*s.* 6*d.*—*Milford Malvoisin*, or *Pews and Pewholders*, by F. E. Paget, 12mo, 4*s.* 6*d.*—*Lectures on the Liturgy*, by the Rev. J. Bantall, post 8vo, 5*s.* 6*d.*—*Primitive Christianity*, by Bp. Mant, 8vo, 12*s.*—*The Comical Adventures of Beau Ogleby*, oblong 8vo, 6*s.*—*The Handbook of the Law of Legacies*, 18mo, 2*s.*—*The Book of Geology*, by M. Higgins, fep., with coloured Plates, 7*s.* 6*d.*—*Sir A. Cooper's Lectures on Surgery*, 6th edit., fep. 7*s.*—*A Selection from Pictures by Claude, Watteau, and Canaletti*, in the National and Dulwich Galleries, drawn and lithographed by Bendishen, fol. 4*s.* 4*s.*—*The Bengal and Agra Guide and Gazetteer*, 2 vols. 8vo, 2*l.*—*Prof. Dick's Manual of Veterinary Science*, post 8vo, 3*s.*—*Cæsar de Bello Gallico*, edited by Philip Smith, 12mo, 3*s.* 6*d.*—*Greek Poetry for Schools*, edited by F. Smith, 12mo, 4*s.*—*Hine's History of the Jews*, 2d edit., fep. 4*s.*—*The School for Wives*, by the Authoress of "Temptation," 3 vols. post 8vo, 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*—*Dr. Donnegan's Greek and English Lexicon*, 4th edition, 1 vol. roy. 8vo, 2*l.* 2*s.*—*Mesopotamia and Assyria*, by J. B. Fraser, Esq., being Vol. 32 of the "Edinburgh Cabinet Library," fep. 5*s.*—*Pilcher on the Structure and Diseases of the Ear*, 2d edition, 8vo, 12*s.*—*Manasseh; a Tale of the Jews*, fep. 5*s.*—*Livy, with Notes*, by Travers Twiss, Vol. IV. 8vo, 9*s.* 6*d.*—*Mrs. Loudon's Ladies' Magazine of Gardening*, 8vo, 18*s.*—*Dictionary of the Arts, Sciences, &c.*, by F. Francis, 8vo, 10*s.*—*Jeremy's Digest of Law Reports for 1841*, roy. 8vo, 9*s.*—*The Kings of the East; an Exposition of the Prophecies*, post 8vo, 8*s.* 6*d.*—*Memoir of the Life of Richard Phillips*, 8vo, 7*s.* 6*d.*—*Maudslayi's Botanic Garden*, Part I, bds.; large, 19*s.*; small, 12*s.*

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THE LISTS for the YEAR 1842 WILL CLOSE in MARCH, and an immediate payment of Subscriptions is earnestly requested, in order to enable the Committee to make advantageous arrangements for the current year.

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The Junior Class, for Pupils of the age of fourteen years or upwards, was also re-opened on the same day.

January 19, 1842.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

NEW ZEALAND COMPANY.—TERMS OF PURCHASE OF PRELIMINARY LANDS IN THE SETTLEMENT OF NELSON, NEW ZEALAND.

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2. These allotments were unsold when the general ballot for priority of choice was held on the 30th of August last; nevertheless the numbers which represent them in the original registry of applications were placed in the wheel with all the other numbers, and the unsold numbers were drawn promiscuously with those which had been previously disposed of; consequently to each of the unsold numbers definite rights of priority of choice (distinct in respect to each of the sections above described) have been attached by the ballot.

3. Until further notice, any party, or his agent, attending at the New Zealand House on any Thursday, at Three o'clock, p.m., and producing the receipt of the Company's bankers, Messrs. Smith, Payne, and Smith, for 300*l.*, will be entitled to draw, in the presence of all the Court of Directors, from a wheel in which the registry numbers of all unsold allotments have been deposited, with special precautions for their security and for the fairness of the proceeding. The register of the original ballot will then show to the party drawing any number to what rights of priority of choice he is entitled.

4. Applicants, therefore, will obtain preliminary allotments on precisely the same terms, with respect to price and the chances of priority of choice, as original purchasers.

5. A list of the registry numbers, with the rights of choice which were attached to each by the original ballot, may be seen at the New Zealand House, on application to the Secretary.

6. Present purchasers will be entitled to the same privileges, in respect to an allowance for cabin passengers (not exceeding 25 per cent on the purchase-money), as those who bought allotments before the general ballot.

7. Purchasers not proceeding to New Zealand will be entitled to delegate their rights of choice to any agent whom they may nominate, who should procure it, such choice will be exercised on their behalf by the officers of the Company.

By order of the Court,

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